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MANUALS OF THE SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING

ADVANCED SERIES

No 2

HOW-TO-TEACH LANGUAGES

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

Manuals of the Science and Art of Teaching

ADVANCED SERIES—No. II.

HOW TO TEACH LANGUAGES

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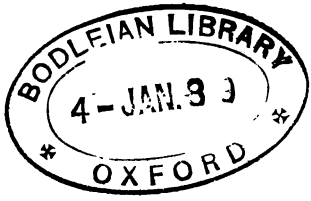

The wide circulation of the National Society's Manuals on the 'Science and Art of Teaching' has induced the Literature Committee to undertake another series of Manuals on more advanced subjects, which they trust will be useful not only to Teachers in Elementary Schools and Students in Training, for whom they are primarily intended, but also to Teachers in Secondary and Higher Grade Schools.

The Manuals of the present series—like those which have preceded it—have been written by men of distinguished reputation in their various subjects, and who have had large experience as teachers and examiners. They include all the subjects in Schedule 4 of the Education Code with the exception of Mathematics, which is fully treated in the 'Pupil Teacher's Course of Mathematics,' published by the Society. The Manual on Teaching Languages has been planned to comprehend the teaching of German and French as well as Latin. In addition to the subjects under Schedule 4, the present series includes a Manual on the Training of Pupil Teachers, by a very successful Lecturer on Method in one of the larger Training Colleges.

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HOW TO TEACH LANGUAGES.

'As this is a question of fact, not of abstract science, we can only expect success by following the experimental method, and deducing general maxims from a comparison of particular instances. The other scientifical method, where a general abstract principle is first established, and is afterwards branched out into a variety of inferences and conclusions, may be more perfect in itself, but suits less the imperfection of human nature.'—HUME.

CHAPTER I.

PRELIMINARIES TO THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE.

1. What is to be learnt.—In the Fourth Schedule to the New Code we find, among other specific subjects, instruction in which is optional, in elementary schools, the following—

	Latin.	French and German.
1st Stage.	Grammar to end of regular verbs.	Grammar to end of regular verbs. Ten pages of a vocabulary.
2nd Stage.	Irregular verbs and first rules of syntax. Knowledge of delectus or other first Latin reading-book. Translation of simple sentences of English (three or four words) into Latin.	Grammar and translation into English of easy narrative sentences. Ten pages of a conversation-book approved by the Inspector.
3rd Stage.	Latin grammar. Cæsar, 'De Bello Gallico,' Book I. Somewhat longer sentences to be translated from English into Latin.	Grammar and knowledge of some easy book approved by the Inspector. Translation of conversational sentences into French or German, as the case may be. Tolerable correctness of pronunciation.

2. Who is to learn it.—According to the rules of the Code, these, like other specific subjects, may be taken up by children on entering Standard IV. (Art. 21 (a).)

It is probable, however, that the intention of the Code is that Languages at least should not be begun until a child has passed St. IV.; for Art. 21 (b) provides that a scholar who has passed St. VI. may be presented for examination in these subjects, which would be impossible if he had begun them all while in St. IV. It is, therefore, to be presumed that the more advanced subjects were not expected to be taken up till the scholar had passed St. IV. at least. Among the more advanced, I think there is no doubt that languages would be reckoned.

I am persuaded, at any rate, that it is generally undesirable that languages should be begun in any standard below the fifth, for the reasons given in the next paragraph.

3. Preliminary requirements.—A child ought to have learnt the rudiments of grammar and the meaning of the rudimentary grammatical terms in English. He ought to know enough of geography to enable him to realise that there are foreign countries in which other languages are spoken, and enough of history to realise that there were other days when Latin was spoken.

I shall, therefore, assume that the children have the amount of grammatical knowledge indicated above, and further know something of the historical and geographical world, before they are introduced to the study of a foreign or dead language.

4. Special preliminary lessons on geographical and historical aspects of the study of language.—Though they have this knowledge, however, it must not be assumed that they will see its bearing, or bring it to bear, on the subject of languages of their own accord. The course of special lessons should therefore be preceded by

some general lessons on the historical and geographical aspects of language, the object of which should be to get the children thoroughly to grasp the fact that languages are not mere inventions for mental gymnastics, but realities, as real to the nations speaking them as English is to us. Again, an English sentence should be taken as text for a lesson, and all the words in it of Latin or French origin, as the case may be, picked out; the value of the foreign tongue and its influence on our own may thus be brought out very forcibly, and you may excite a curiosity to know something more of these sources of English. For German, the course would be only slightly different, the point to be brought out in this case being that English is in fact a form of German. General lessons of this sort should not only precede the special course, but should also be given from time to time between the special lessons, partly to relieve the drier parts of the subject, and partly to keep up the vitality of the instruction.

CHAPTER II.

ON GRAMMAR.

1. Referring back to the Code, you see that the course in each case begins with 'Grammar'; a branch of study which is somewhat repulsive, for not only does it bristle with technical terms, but the terminology is itself more than usually crabbed; in general, the terms employed cannot be understood without a previous knowledge of Latin.

But it has been asked—why learn these technical terms? Why learn grammar at all? Why not learn a foreign or a dead language by a similar process to that by which we learned our own tongue? These are weighty questions; and the replies to them bear so immediately on the matter in hand, that I propose to make the consideration of them a preliminary to the treatment of the main portion of my subject.

2. **Reasons for making grammar part of course of study.**—First: why should we not learn, say, Latin as we did English, i.e. by imitating sounds and by storing our memory with the ideas which those sounds represent? Well, if our only object were to express ourselves in a foreign language as we do in our own, I should say there was no sufficient answer to be given to this question. But is this our only object? I think not. There are two very important faculties which may be brought to bear on the study of language—the faculty of analysis, and the faculty of comparison—which in the imitative method of

learning would be practically unused. For it is by the analysis and investigation of language that we first learn to classify words according to their functions: by the same process we are led to notice that certain words under certain circumstances are more or less modified in form. Comparison shows us that similar or analogous modifications occur in all similar words under the same circumstances; and hence we arrive at the general ideas of case, gender, number, tense, &c., which we sum up in the name 'Accidence.' Again, when we analyse and compare the circumstances under which these modifications occur, we are able to recognise the similarity of them, and thus we can lay down certain general rules: as, for instance, where we find the object of every transitive verb in the accusative case, we think ourselves justified in laying down a rule that transitive verbs govern the accusative. We find that all finite verbs following a conjunction expressing consequence are in the subjunctive mood, and we frame a rule for our own use accordingly, &c. Hence we get 'Syntax,' or the art of fitting words together correctly according to the circumstances in which they are used.

3. English grammar insufficient for this purpose.—But why should not all this explanation and information be given in the course of the study of English Grammar? You say you require a child to have learnt the rudiments of grammar before undertaking a language: has he not then got over these difficulties already? This is so to a certain extent; but we soon find that our English grammatical apparatus is inadequate for other tongues, and we must either enlarge it as we go along, or complete it up to the necessary point before starting. Take an illustration from number, gender, and case. English has two numbers, singular and plural; Greek and Sanskrit add another, the dual. English has but two oblique cases, possessive and objective; German and Greek have three; Latin adds a

fourth; Sanskrit a fifth and sixth (without counting the vocative in each case). Again with gender; the neuter gender, which is negative in English, i.e. simply denies sex, and which merges entirely in French, reappears in other languages as a very positive idea, equivalent for all purposes to a third sex. But, in fact, the idea of sex has been entirely superseded in other languages by the grammatical idea of gender; for instance, what are the genders of 'village, room, roof'? Neuter or non-gendered—says the English grammarian; masculine, feminine, and neuter—says the Latin. Again, the English language has by a process of attrition [1] lost so many of its angles, that words really unlike one another have become apparently the same: as in the nominative and accusative cases of nouns, which have lost the terminations by which they used to be distinguished; and in the participial infinitive of the verb (as in 'seeing is believing'), which we cannot distinguish in form from the present participle. Again, there are in English some inherent ambiguities, so awkward as to have misled people who ought to have known better; e.g. the use of 'might' in such phrases as these, 'He told him that he might go to London'; meaning—had leave to go to London; 'He took the train that he might go to London more quickly,'—where 'might' is only an auxiliary of the subjunctive mood.

Now, there are two conclusions that I wish to draw from this. The first is the one which we more immediately want, i.e. that the grammatical frame-work or internal skeleton of English is insufficient for the support of other languages, and that we must enlarge or supplement it, as I said before. Secondly, I would point out to teachers that the comparison of the grammar of one language with that of another is in itself a very valuable method of bringing the intellect into play, and one of which they should avail themselves whenever the opportunity presents itself. If it

[1] Attrition, 'rubbing together;' pebbles on a beach, which were once angular fragments of rock, have become round by *attrition*.

be objected to this that the analysis and comparison is all the teacher's, not the scholar's, I reply that this is to beg the whole question, and assumes a stolid and unintelligent method of teaching, against which these Manuals are especially directed.

4. We must put up with the crabbed terminology of grammar till a better is invented.—Still, it may be said, if we must have grammar, why must its language be so crabbed, and its terms so unintelligible? Well, we have the inheritance of the ages, and we must accept it with all its inconveniences until we can invent something better. The attempt has been made in German to invent more intelligible terms, but with only partial success; for instance, they say Neben-wort, *neighbour-word*; and Beiwort, *subsidiary word*: which of these should you think meant adjective, and which adverb? Again, they say Zeitwort, *time-word*, a capital name for an adverb of time—but it means a verb. For the present, at any rate, therefore, it will be advisable to accept the old established set of names.

5. Grammatical terms must be explained and illustrated.—I therefore agree with the Code in requiring for the study of any language a sound substratum of grammar. But I would insist, as a first axiom of teaching language, that no grammatical term be used as a mere empty symbol, if it is capable of explanation and illustration.

You will doubtless ask me, whence and how are we to get these explanations? I can only answer—from people who understand the matter. Books will not help you much, those at least that are within ordinary reach. Some grammarians give a little explanation, with illustration, but of a meagre description; while the majority introduce children to words like 'dative' and 'ablative' with as little ceremony or explanation as if the meaning of them were as self-evident as that of 'currant-bun.' Still, as I trust nobody will be set to teach this

or anything else except after competent instruction, a teacher will have found some means of acquainting himself with these matters. The present is neither the time nor the place for an exhaustive discussion thereon, but I hope to be able to give a few illustrations of my idea before I have done.[1]

6. On the comparative importance of grammar in the study of Latin, French, and German.—Whatever be the language which it is proposed to study, I think the teacher should take the principle of the foregoing observations to heart. At the same time it must be admitted that the practice must vary according to the language. Thus, in learning Latin, grammar will be the chief point, and the use of the language will be subsidiary. In French the language will be the principal, and the grammar (which labours under many of the defects of our own) will be secondary. German holds a middle place between the two; the language is as important to us as French, while the grammar requires much attention.

To put it in another way, if we were to learn Latin imitatively, as we learned English in our babyhood, we should not have gained much; if we learned French and German in that manner, we should gain a great deal. On the other hand, if we could learn grammar out of Latin, even without learning a word of the language, we should have added enormously to our thinking power; if out of German, we should have added a good deal; if out of French, we should have added comparatively little to what we had already got out of English. This difference is recognised in the Code by the injunction to learn 'Vocabulary' at the very beginning of the course in French and German, an injunction which is absent under the head of Latin.

The method of teaching therefore will vary according to the language, as I shall have occasion to point out later.

[1] See also Appendix to *Public Schools Primer*.

CHAPTER III.

ON LEARNING BY HEART.

1. I will now address myself to the question, what part memory should play in the matter of learning a language, or, how much and what sort of learning by heart should be asked for. This is one of the points on which most people are agreed in theory, but in which there is considerable backsliding in practice. No one will go far wrong in this matter who bears in mind that education is partly an inductive and partly a deductive process; that is, we either make for ourselves general rules out of a number of instances in which we observe a common feature, or, the general rule being given, we apply it to particular cases. It may be said that the inductive process is now in abeyance, as all the general rules that we have usually to deal with have been discovered long ago. Still, a rule is not a rule till it is accepted and realised as such; and the proper office of a teacher is so to present the particular instances to the scholar (at least while he is new to the method) that his attention may be at once arrested by the similarities, without being disturbed by anomalies or exceptions. The task of memory so far in marshalling and keeping hold of the instances is a very subordinate one, and may be replaced without much loss by purely mechanical means, as a black-board or paper. But, the rule having been once found and realised, memory comes in at once to grasp it and fix it indelibly on the brain. At this point the deductive process begins, according to which we learn to deal with particular cases by the general rule which we have dis-

covered; and we should not omit to practise it upon a reasonable number of instances. Here memory becomes of enormous value; for first we learn the instances, and thereby strengthen our knowledge of the rule; and next, if occasion require it, we learn other instances for daily use; for if once we have understood a process, it is unreasonable that we should be always repeating it, when we have in our minds an easier method of getting at the same result by memory. (Thus having learnt the principle of multiplication, we learn the multiplication-table, not as a substitute for, but as a supplement to, our powers of calculation.)

My conclusion then is that while children are going through the inductive process, i.e. at the beginning of a study, and of each new step in it, memory should be little called upon; in the deductive process, on the contrary, it should be in constant use.

2. On learning vocabulary.—There is another exercise of memory which I must not omit to mention, as it is the most toilsome and aggravating part of the study: I mean the learning of pages of vocabulary. This, be it observed, is not education in the strict sense; it is the supply of more or less profitable information; and I am for my own part very shy of enforcing the process where it is found utterly nauseous. The point here is to combine the maximum of advantage with the minimum of tedium; and this will best be done by 'mixing a little brains with the words,' i.e. the vocabulary should be so arranged as to bring the powers of comparison into action, though in another way.

Let us take five consecutive words from a published French vocabulary—'plume, *pen*; mère, *mother*; enfant, *child*; voici, *here is* or *here are*; père, *father*.' They happen to be the first I hit upon on opening the book, and I therefore take them the more readily as illustrating pretty well all the faults of an unscientific vocabulary. They are simply 'higgledy-piggledy,' not

even classified according to meaning, which is a faulty classification enough; and the slightest and most pardonable derangement in the apparatus of memory will make a child carry away the notion that 'plume' means *mother* and 'voici' *father*. Now to arrange them in some sort of intelligent order.

"Some French words are very easy to remember because they are the same as English words; 'plume,' English plume, which we know means *feather*, particularly a *goose-feather* or *pen*,[1] while in others the change is so slight that we can recognise them at once, as 'enfant,' English *infant*, or more generally, *child*. These we may call identical words. There are again French words which were once nearly identical with their English equivalents, but which in process of time have changed or dropped some of their radical (or root-) letters; thus, 'père,' *father*, retains the *p* (or *f*) sound, and the *r*, but has dropped the *t* sound. Similarly, 'mère,' *mother*, retains the *m* and *r*, but has dropped the *t* sound. These we may call 'metamorphic'[2] words. Finally, some words are purely French, i.e. have no resemblance to English equivalents. These may be called dissimilar words. As 'voici,' short for 'vois ci,' *see here*. But in English we don't say 'see here an apple,' we say 'here is an apple;' so we may say 'voici' means *here is* or *here are*, not forgetting however its real meaning of *see here*."

Now neither the words nor the classification chosen is perhaps the best imaginable; still, even such as they are, they illustrate fairly the difference between systematic and unsystematic vocabulary. I must observe here, however, that

[1] Note that the process of transition from 'plume' to 'pen' is insisted on, first, because it is interesting; secondly, as fairly representative of the many-sidedness of words; thirdly, to avoid the absurdity (which I find in some books) of entering 'plume' again as 'feather' a few pages later.

[2] 'Metamorphic' means 'changed in form:' a geological term invented by Sir Charles Lyell to express the alteration in the structure of rock by external influences.

my present object is not to write a scientific reading-book, but to point out the true method of teaching. But a scientific vocabulary must be either found, or constructed, if the learning it by heart is to have any result better than a parrot's chatter.

3. Use of dictionary.—In the more advanced stages of every language another form of vocabulary comes into use, viz., that in which students find the foreign words alphabetically arranged, with their meanings attached. This takes the place of a dictionary, though very imperfectly. I think it is as well to point out to teachers what its defects are, that they may obviate them, as far as they can, and that they may understand the advantage to themselves and to their more advanced scholars of using a dictionary. I take a sentence at random out of Cæsar's 'De Bello Gallico,' Book I.: 'Ipse in Italiam magnis itineribus contendit.' A vocabulary will probably content itself with saying, 'iter, *a journey*; contendo, *I hasten.*' Now turn to old Ainsworth and find, 'iter [ab eo, ivi, itum], (1) *a going along*, (2) *a way*, (3) *a road*... (6) *a journey*... (8) *a march.*' Now here is the whole history of the word, its derivations, with the various steps by which it arrives from the mere notion of 'going' to 'a march.' Again, 'contendo, (1) *to stretch* or *strain*... (3) *to labour* or *strive*, (4) *to march, to pursue his way in all haste.*' This is imperfect, in so far as it does not directly point to the root, 'tendo,' but otherwise the gradual development of the meaning is well brought out. It is scarcely necessary to dwell on the difference in value of the information conveyed by the two processes.

CHAPTER IV.

SUMMARY OF GENERAL RULES.

I will now summarise my observations into a few general rules.

(1) Begin your course with appropriate lessons in geography and history.
(2) Explain all technical terms as you go along.
(3) Never let a rule be learnt before its bearing has been explained by example, and understood.
(4) Put everything that has to be learnt by heart into a form that admits of classification and digestion.
(5) Where possible, prefer dictionary work to vocabulary.
(6) Look upon development of power of analysis and comparison as your object, and the knowledge of the special language will assuredly follow.

To these I would add another rule applicable to all study in these days of lectures. Let scholars do as much as possible for themselves. Remember that chewing is as important a process as any other in digestion; therefore give children for their intellectual food meat, cooked as well as you can cook it, but not mere sop.

CHAPTER V.

INTRODUCTORY TO SPECIAL LANGUAGES.

I propose now to go through the three subject-languages seriatim, with the view to the application of the above remarks, and with such occasional notes as are called for.

Be it noted that the arrangement which I adopt does not pretend to be scientific: a scientific arrangement can be found in any good grammar. My object is to marshal the various topics in their natural order—that, namely, in which they can be most easily taught.

Thus in French I introduce the subject of accents between regular and irregular plurals, although of course it forms part of 'pronunciation.' My reason is this: to present the whole subject of pronunciation to children *simpliciter* and in scientific order would be alike wearisome and ineffectual: therefore I begin with only so much as is absolutely necessary; and I introduce the remainder by little and little, in such a manner as to give a variety to the course, and also so as to enable the teacher to enlarge his field of illustration. So again, in Latin the verb 'esse' is introduced between the active and passive voices: for it is easier to learn the inflexions of the verb from the regular verbs; and the inflexions of 'esse' are not absolutely required until we reach the passive voice.

It is scarcely necessary to add that my treatment of each language is not intended to be in any way exhaustive. My object is to point out how to teach, not what to teach: and the sketches of lessons, &c. which will be found further on are intended solely as illustrations of methods. For this reason they are given pretty freely at the beginning of a fresh subject, and are afterwards dropped.

CHAPTER VI.

LATIN.

1. The pronunciation.—One of the first points to which attention is directed in some grammars is 'pronunciation.' It is a matter for the director of the study, head-teacher or otherwise, to decide what pronunciation to adopt. There is a choice of difficulties: if you adopt the old-fashioned plan of pronouncing Latin as if it were English, you will, in the present generation at any rate, be understood in England, and not understood abroad; if you adopt the Continental vowel-system, you will be less understood in England, but better abroad; if you adopt the 'new' pronunciation, your speech will be familiar to nobody in particular, but you will have the satisfaction of conforming to the newest lights. I think myself that whatever the *a priori* arguments in favour of the new or the Continental system, teachers will be safer in adopting the old English pronunciation, taking for choice that variety which broadens the long ā, as 'rosâ,' pronounce 'rosah.'

2. Accidence. Sketch of a series of first lessons on nouns.—I propose now to give a sketch of a set of first lessons on Latin nouns, illustrating the application of my second general rule.

You already know that there are three cases—nominative, possessive, objective: illustrate in English. 'Bill has an apple.' 'This is Bill's apple.' 'Jack struck Bill.' 'Father gave the apple to Bill.'

'Jack took the apple from Bill.' What case is 'Bill' in each of these sentences? Having elicited the names of the cases, and that the three last are all called 'objective,' go on to ask—Can you tell what case 'Bill' is in any of these by only looking at the word, without looking at its place in the sentence? Yes, where 'Bill' is in the possessive case, which we recognise by the apostrophe and 's.' Well, in some languages we can tell all the cases, one from another, by the ending of the words; and what is more, we can tell the objective case governed by a transitive verb, from that governed by the preposition 'of' or 'from.' This change of the ending for the purpose of signifying the different cases is called inflexion, or 'bending,' as if the word were bent into different shapes.

There are more names of cases in other languages than in English; we can learn them from the sentences which we have above:—'Bill has an apple.' 'Bill' is in the nominative or 'naming' case.—'This is Bill's apple.' 'Bill' is in the possessive or possessing case, because Bill possesses or owns the apple.—'Father gave the apple to Bill.' 'Bill' is here in the dative or given case; the word 'dative' comes from a Latin word 'datus,' which means *given*.—'Jack struck Bill.' 'Bill' here is in the accusative case, or what we should call the object of the action.—'Jack took the apple from Bill.' Here 'Bill' is in the ablative case: 'ablative' is from a Latin word 'ablatus,' which means *taken away*, and you will see that 'Bill' is here in the 'taken-away' case.—Now I will give you one sentence more. 'Bill! here is your apple again.' 'Bill' is here in the vocative or 'calling' case, from a Latin word 'vocatus,' meaning *called*, because by it we call Bill.

Recapitulate the cases, with their meanings, and find some other instances like them, and learn their names by heart.

Each of these cases has in Latin an ending (or termination, which means the same) of its own: for instance, if the nominative ends in -us, as servus, *a serf, a slave*, the possessive is made by putting -i instead of -us:[1] servi, *a slave's*; the dative by putting -o, as servo, *to a slave*; the accusative by putting -um, as servum, *a slave*; the vocative by putting -e, as serve, *slave!* the ablative by putting -o, as servo, *from a slave.*

Recapitulate in order, and learn by heart, 'Nominative servus, *a slave*; possessive servi, *a slave's*,' &c. Practise with similar words, as equus, *a horse*, natus, *a son*, &c. Then proceed: What number is servus, *a slave*?—Singular.—To make it plural we must change its

[1] Don't talk, at first at least, of *changing* -us into -i; elementary school children never understand it.

shape, or inflect it again. Thus, if 'servus' means *a slave*, 'servi' means *slaves*, 'servorum,' &c. &c. Again, learn by heart and practise on other words.

3. No article expressed in Latin.—Having got thus far, the teacher had better at once relieve the children's minds of a difficulty, by explaining to them that the article is expressed in English and not in Latin. Hence of course there is an occasional ambiguity, for which they must look out.

4. Introduction of 'genitive' case.—The teacher will observe that in the above sketch I have used the familiar name 'possessive' for the second case. It will be advisable to retain the name until the children have mastered the notion of inflexion; then introduce them to the name 'genitive' as a substitute, and teach them to translate it by the use of the preposition 'of,' as well as by the strictly possessive case in English.

5. Gender.—Having now realised inflexion, as applied to case and number, we go on to gender. Here it will be necessary to pause and give a short exposition of the difference between gender as explained in English and as used in Latin, pointing out that in Latin the notion of actual male and female has been completely overwhelmed by usage, nouns being masculine, feminine, or neuter almost arbitrarily; e.g. 'a village, a city, a temple' are all neuter nouns in English, while in Latin they are respectively masculine, feminine, and neuter. Illustrate this by the arbitrary application of gender in English to words like 'ship,' 'engine,' &c. &c. Further, note the greater importance of neuter gender in Latin: in English it is almost strictly negative, i.e. little more than a recognition of the fact that the noun is neither male nor female: in Latin, it is distinctly positive i.e. it is as clearly a separate gender as if there were a third sex corresponding to it.

You are now in a position to point out that **-us** is a masculine termination (or ending); that the corresponding feminine termination is **-a**; the corresponding neuter is **-um**; as rosa, *a rose*, templum, *a temple.*

6. Inflexion of feminine and neuter nouns.—These nouns have their inflexions too. (Go through their cases as before with 'servus,' and work other examples.)

7. Declension.—So far I have said no word about declension, and purposely. I want the children to make out the idea of declensions for themselves: thus—'Do you notice that two of these words are far more like one another in their cases than either is to the third?'—Yes, 'servus' and 'templum.' Exactly; so that we might really treat them as belonging to one class, while 'rosa' belongs to another. This is in fact what we do: we say 'rosa' and all other nouns that end in *-a* and make their genitive in *-æ* are of the first class, or declension; masculine nouns in *-us*, and neuter in *-um*, making their genitive in *-i*, like 'servus' and 'templum,' are of the second class, or declension. 'Declension' is the English way of saying 'declination,' or form in which the other cases decline or seem to lean away from the nominative.—There is a diagram in some grammars illustrating this idea. Now exercise the class in declension, so far as the first and second, taking not only nominative, but oblique cases. I don't think it matters much whether you take my examples or others; my reason for selecting 'servus,' 'rosa,' and 'templum,' is that they are identical with their English equivalents; thus you do not begin by scaring children with the sight of an absolutely unknown word, and you introduce them at once and unconsciously to the all-important fact of the close relation between English and Latin.

You will now proceed to the third declension; but as the children have got into the habit of inflecting the noun, it will suffice to go straight to the case-endings, without

going through all the preparatory work given above for the first and second declensions.

You must call their attention to a striking difference between two classes of nouns in this declension, i.e. that in one class the oblique cases have the same number of syllables as the nominative, and in the other they have more: nouns of the first class are called parisyllabic, or equal-syllabled; nouns of the second class are called imparisyllabic, or not equal-syllabled. The children must now learn by heart some nouns of this declension: such as 'nubes,' 'felis,' 'rete,' 'dux,' 'terror,' 'imago,' 'corpus.' Call attention to the fact that in this, as in the previous and all other declensions, the nominative, accusative, and vocative of neuter nouns is the same. Also dwell very strongly on the fact that however unlike the nouns may be in their nominative cases, the actual endings of the oblique cases are the same throughout, thus constituting the whole into one class, or declension.

It will now be useful to give them such general rules as there are for telling the gender of a noun in this declension by the ending of its nominative; e.g. that *-x* and *-o* are generally a mark of the feminine, *-us* a mark of the neuter.

Go on to the fourth declension, taking first case-endings and then learning by heart representative nouns. Note that as a general rule all nouns ending in *-us* in this declension are masculine, and all ending in *-u* are neuter.

Then to the fifth declension in the same manner: note that all nouns in this declension are feminine.

8. Recapitulation of declensions, and exceptions.—Having got to the end of the nouns, recapitulate, noting that numerous as the nouns are in Latin, they all without exception come into one of these five classes or declensions. Now recapitulate declensions for the purpose of putting in exceptions; e.g. there are a few nouns of the first declension

ending in *-a* which are masculine, as nauta, *a sailor*; poeta, *a poet*. There are some nouns ending in *-er*, which belong to the second declension, declined as if they ended in *-rus*, as puer, *a boy*, aper, *a boar*. Moreover, nouns ending in *-us*, though generally masculine, are not invariably so; there are a few feminine and neuter, as 'humus,' 'pirus,' 'pelagus.'

9. Expansion of primary meaning of case-names.—Remember to explain to the children, before they are puzzled with it, that the meanings of the cases of nouns are not confined to those signified by their names; e.g. ablative is not always 'taken-away' case, but also expresses instrument, place, &c.

CHAPTER VII.

THE ADJECTIVE.

The foregoing sketch is intended to serve as an illustration of the method which I would advise you to adopt. If my readers have understood me, and their subject, they will see how to go on in the same way to the adjective. If they have not, I would rather not attempt to supply their deficiencies; for it cannot be too often repeated, teaching means using your own brains, not another person's; and no method can be invented which will dispense with them.

1. Reason for inflexion of adjective must be explained. (This involves the second concord.)—It will be well, however, to point out that children coming from English to Latin have at first not the faintest notion of the rule of concord that the adjective agrees with its noun in gender, number, and case; and that until this fact has been explained to them, they will be puzzled to know why adjectives are inflected at all.

I would therefore proceed to explain it somewhat as follows:—

The first striking difference that we noticed between Latin and English was that in Latin the nouns themselves told us by their endings of what gender, number, and case they were. The next striking difference is that the adjective tells us the same and in the same way. Why is this? Or how can an adjective, for instance 'beautiful,' have a gender, number, and case? Well, it cannot by itself; but remember what the meaning of 'adjective' is; it means a word added to or put along-

side of a noun to express some quality of that noun. Now that noun must have a gender, number, and case, and it is only right that the adjective joined to it should make itself as like the noun as it can. You have seen perhaps how soldiers wear a red coat because red is the Queen's colour; they wear it to show that they belong to the Queen. In the same way the adjective puts on the shape of the noun to which it is joined to show that it belongs to it. This is expressed by the following rule: 'Adjectives agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case.' Learn this by heart.

2. As to choice of examples for inflexion.—In illustrating nouns and adjectives it would be well to make some use of words which have already come before the children in the course of previous lessons; e.g. decline casus, *a case*, as a noun of the fourth declension; 'datus' and 'ablatus,' the roots of 'dative' and 'ablative,' as adjectives of three terminations.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE VERB.

1. The accidence of the verb forms the most important branch in the study of Latin. Children have now to realise—what in English grammar is terribly slurred over—the meaning of tense, mood, &c. They have to analyse their notions of past time into imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect, or whatever may be the terms used—to analyse the conditions or modes of action, so as to distinguish between indicative and subjunctive moods—to recognise the inversion of thought involved in the existence of a passive voice. It is scarcely necessary to point out that this cannot be done by simply learning tenses, &c.; the ideas must be gradually developed from the stem upwards.

Begin then at once with 'amo,' and go through the present indicative on the black-board, dwelling strongly on the fact that the changes affect the ending only, leaving a part which is never disturbed; when the children have grasped the idea, supply them with the word 'stem' to express this undisturbed part. Next, to what do these changes correspond? To changes in the person and in the number of the nominative. Hence bring out a general rule that the termination of the verb varies as the person and number of its nominative. Let this be mastered by means of the inflexions of the present indicative of 'amo' before the next step is taken.

Now proceed straight to the past tenses, first the imperfect, am-abam, *I was loving*; next the perfect, am-avi, *I*

loved; lastly, the pluperfect, am-averam, *I had loved*; learning by heart the persons as before.

2. The tenses.—When they have got over this much, it will be necessary to go back in order to rectify and explain. (I put the explanatory process second here, as the children will scarcely comprehend the explanation without having in their minds the actual tenses to which to apply it.) First discuss the present tense and bring out the fact that there is a present, in which the state of the action is left undefined, as, 'I love,' 'I eat'; next, an incomplete present, in which the action is still going on, as 'I am loving,' 'I am eating'; lastly, a present in which the action is *complete* and over, as 'I have loved,' 'I have eaten.' Now for the word 'complete' substitute 'perfect'; dwelling here on the etymology, so that the children may understand that 'perfect' does not in grammar bear its secondary sense of 'flawless,' but its primary sense of 'done thoroughly, completed.' We have then three presents—indefinite, imperfect, and perfect. To these correspond three pasts—indefinite, imperfect, and perfect.

Now in Latin the present indefinite and present imperfect are expressed in one tense, which is generally called the present; thus 'amo' means *I love*, and *I am loving*; the present perfect and past indefinite are expressed by one tense which we call the perfect tense, amavi, *I have loved*, or *I loved*; the past imperfect has a tense to itself called the imperfect, amabam, *I was loving*; the past perfect also a tense to itself, which we call the pluperfect, amaveram, *I had loved*. (You may point out that there is nothing really paradoxical in the expression of present perfect and past indefinite by the same tense, as the present perfect, though expressed in terms of the present, refers to a completed and therefore past action.)

This should be well worked out by a diagram on the black-board.

I attach considerable importance to the proper working out of this view, as without it children will always be in a mist as to the exact relations of the tenses, especially in the passive voice.

3. The subjunctive mood.—No difficulty now presents itself until we reach the subjunctive mood. The older grammars are doubtless correct in speaking of 'subjunctive or potential mood'; and it would be well that teachers should understand the difference between the two; i.e. that the subjunctive is strictly the mood of the protasis, the potential of the apodosis.[1] '*If he loved me, I would endure anything*; si me amaret (subjunctive) omnia ferrem' (potential). I do not, however, think it advisable to perplex children with such delicate distinctions. Let it suffice to say, the subjunctive mood is that form which the verb assumes when subjoined to another to express purpose or condition, &c. (i.e. in certain subordinate sentences); as, 'I ran, that I might obtain the prize;' 'he punished him lest he should do it again;' 'I would give it, if I had it;' 'it is doubtful whether the planets are inhabited.' This will be enough to give children some notion of what they are learning; when they have committed the tenses of the subjunctive to memory, they may be told that the same forms are used in a principal sentence to express uncertainty or possibility, so that in the sentence 'I would give it, if I had it,' both verbs are in the subjunctive mood.

4. The active participles.— On the participle point out that there is in Latin only a present and a future participle: dwell on the absence of a perfect participle.

[1] Roughly speaking, the protasis and apodosis are the subordinate and principal parts respectively of a complex sentence: but teachers to whom these terms present a difficulty, should accept the fact as a warning that they have not done much more than 'pick up pebbles on the shore' of grammar.

5. The conjugations. — Having completed the tenses of the active voice of 'amo,' recapitulate with other illustrations and much black-board work, to bring out forcibly the characteristic *a*, and inform the children that verbs inflected with this characteristic *a* are called verbs of the first conjugation.

The remaining conjugations want little more than committing to memory; but black-board lessons should be given with each, to bring out its characteristic, whether vowel or consonant.

Be careful that in the third conjugation the children do not lose sight of the root in such forms as 'rego,' 'rexi' (reg-si).

6. Formation of simple sentences. (First appearance of composition.)—All these lessons should be varied and enlivened from time to time by translation lessons, from Latin to English and *vice versâ*, the teacher supplying the words where wanted. In these lessons keep to regular verbs in the active voice, but do not scruple to anticipate rules of syntax, such as the government of nouns by verbs and prepositions, and the sequence of tenses in subordinate sentences of purpose and condition. A vast amount of simple syntax will be picked up unconsciously in this way out of such sentences as 'date obolum Belisario,' 'miles faciem ense ferit,' &c. (Observe that although 'dare' is irregular in the perfect, I do not discard its regular tenses. Next observe that my two examples above will bear talking about; each is connected with a story in Roman history, which will interest children, and fix the words in their memories.)

7. 'Esse.'—It is now time to take up the verb 'esse.' We have left it out hitherto, on account of its great irregularity; but as by this time the children ought to have got hold of the structure of the verb tolerably well, and as the

passive voice cannot be properly worked without it, it should now be learnt. At the same time it should be carefully pointed out that this verb is utterly irregular, being in fact a mosaic made up of parts of several verbs, of each of which the remainder is lost. Again practise translation and composition, making use of the different forms of the newly-acquired word; and let the children notice incidentally that in Latin, as in English, the verb 'to be' has the same case after it as before it.

8. The passive voice.—The passive voice appears to present great difficulties to tiros in English grammar, principally, I suspect, from an inability to distinguish between the uses of the verb 'to be' as a copula and as an auxiliary. It must be confessed that in such phrases as 'I am cold,' 'I am frozen,' 'I am being frozen,' it is difficult to mark the precise point where 'am' ceases to be a copula, and becomes an auxiliary, although there is no doubt as to its status in the first and last of the three. In Latin the same difficulty presents itself to a certain extent, but it may be got over by carefully adhering to the division of present and past tenses, which was given above, under the head of the active voice.

First, then, get the children to invert a simple sentence or two, as 'the dog bites the man;' 'the man strikes the dog;' i.e. get them to express the same idea, but with the object of the old sentence used as subject of the new: 'the man is bitten by the dog,' &c. Do the same with past and future tenses: 'the dog bit the man,' 'the dog will bite the man,' &c. This inverted form of the verb, whereby its subject is made to suffer the action, instead of doing it, is called its passive voice. It is formed in Latin by inflexion, thus: 'Am-o, *I am loving*,' becomes 'am-or, *I am being loved*.' 'Am-o, *I love*' . . . 'am-atus sum, *I am loved*.' 'Am-atus, *having been loved*,' or more shortly '*loved*,' is the perfect participle of the passive voice.

9. Tenses of passive voice.—The present indefinite (p. 26, § 2, *supra*) is formed by this perfect participle, with the auxiliary 'sum,' 'amatus sum, *I am loved.*' (Note the exact coincidence with English.)[1] The present imperfect is that mentioned above, 'amor, *I am being loved*;' the present perfect is formed by the perfect participle with the present perfect of 'sum,' 'amatus fui, *I have been loved.*' Their respective past tenses are, 'amatus eram,' 'amabar,' and 'amatus fueram.'

In learning the verb, however, the indefinite and perfect tenses, both past and present, are taken together (partly from the similarity of their construction, and partly from a tendency of their meanings in this passive voice to slip into and coincide with one another). We therefore talk of 'amor, *I am being loved*,' present passive; 'amabar, *I was being loved*,' imperfect passive; 'amatus sum *or* fui, *I am* or *have been loved*,' perfect passive; 'amatus eram *or* fueram, *I was* or *had been loved*,' pluperfect passive.

10. The participle with auxiliary is inflected in gender and number.—In learning these tenses, be careful to point out that the perfect participle, when thus used with an auxiliary, does not in any way lose its characteristic as a participle of being partly an adjective, and therefore, according to the rule found above (p. 24, ch. vii. § 1), must agree with its noun (or pronoun) in number, and gender, and case. It may therefore be 'amatus,' 'amata,' or 'amatum sum;' 'amati,' 'amatæ,' or 'amata sumus.'

[1] To illustrate the value of presenting the tense in this manner to children, take the first sentence in Cæsar *de Bello Gallico*: 'Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres.' If children are taught that 'divisus sum' is a perfect, they will translate this 'has been divided,' contrary to the sense; and when taught to say 'is divided,' will conclude that 'est' is here a copula, not an auxiliary.

CHAPTER IX.

CONCLUSION OF ACCIDENCE.

I have now touched upon all the points in the accidence which appear to me to call for remark, and I have suggested methods of dealing with the difficulties. If the spirit of these be carefully followed out, the children will have little trouble with the remainder; and it is to be hoped that the consciousness of having mastered thus much will make the inevitable grind at learning by heart less irksome, because more hopeful. The irregular verbs can only be learnt; the classification of them in the 'Public School Grammar' may well be adopted. If teachers like, they may try the effect of impressing them on the mind by a metrical jingle;[1] but the results are not very trustworthy.

Deponent and anomalous and defective verbs offer no

[1] Metrical jingles often impress single facts, but are equally often dangerous. Thus—

'In nemo you will never see
Neminis or nemine,'

is useful. On the other hand, we read—

'Verbal nouns in *-io* call
Feminina, one and all;
Mascula will only be
Things that you may touch or see
(As curculio, vespertilio,
Pugio, scipio, and papilio).'

Let the two middle lines slip out, and the lines, while making equally good sense, are all wrong.

special difficulty; nor do pronouns, adverbs, and conjunctions require particular explanation.

In dealing with the pronouns, however, especially the relative, it will be necessary to give much practice in sentences illustrating the various cases, and specially with reference to the agreement of the relative with its antecedent.

CHAPTER X.

SYNTAX.

1. **The four concords.**—Of the four concords three will have been already practically disposed of—the agreement of the verb with its nominative, of the adjective with its noun, of the relative with its antecedent. It only remains to state them specifically, and to dwell on the enlargement of the first concord. The old rule that the first person is more worthy than the second, &c., is almost worth preservation as a survival of scholastic quaintness: but it should be explained on a more scientific principle, thus :—

In the sentence 'we took a walk,' what does 'we' mean? It means 'I and you,' or 'I and one or more besides.' 'I and you' or 'I and one or more besides' are equivalent to 'we'; therefore they require a verb in the first person plural; and generally—

> 'Where the pronoun of the first person forms part of a compound nominative, the verb shall be in the first person plural.'

Similarly 'ye' means 'you and one or more besides,' &c.

The third concord, of the noun in apposition with its principal, should be treated as an extension of the concord of the adjective with its noun, by showing that the noun in apposition is, in fact, like an adjective, a qualifying word.

2. **Learn syntax by language, not language by syntax.**—I have now arrived at the point where, I fear, I

shall part company with the majority of teachers of grammar. I would entirely invert the old process of teaching; and, instead of giving abstract rules first, and illustrating them by examples afterwards, I would give a sufficient number of apt examples first, lead the children to see the feature common to them all, and hence to make the rule for themselves. I will only repeat and condense my reason: first, it is the natural and historical method by which grammatical rules were first invented; secondly, it fosters the habit of generalisation; thirdly, it keeps the teacher and the class in continual mental contact.

3. Difference between rules of concord and rules of syntax.—It may be asked, why not apply this method earlier, and teach the four concords thus? I will answer this question at length, for the benefit of younger readers who may thus be led to understand better the real nature and authority of syntactical rules.

A rule of syntax in the strictest and best sense is a simple generalisation, i.e. an expression in general terms of a phenomenon which we find invariably recurring where the circumstances are similar. Thus, we find the object after the verb 'amo' is put in the accusative case; the same after 'occido'; the same after 'ferio'; the same after 'rego,' &c. We inquire what common feature these words have, and we find they are all transitive verbs. Hence we say in general terms, 'a transitive verb is followed by its object in the accusative case.' This power of seeing a general rule in a number of particular instances is a peculiar faculty of the intelligence: but it must be carefully borne in mind that the validity of such a general rule depends solely on the number of instances in its favour and the absence of instances to the contrary, and not at all on any quality of the words themselves. To put the matter in another way, if a stranger were given the six cases of the noun 'pater,' and were asked which of them must follow the transitive verb 'amo,' the chances would be

five to one against his naming the accusative, as there is nothing in the word 'patrem' itself to lead him to a right conclusion.

The idea of the concords, on the other hand, as I have attempted to show above, is inherent in the idea of inflexion; they exist by virtue, and only by virtue, of the inflexions. Thus we say 'the adjective agrees with its noun in gender, number, and case,' simply because the adjective has the power of inflecting itself into the same shape as the noun in those respects. A fair negative proof of the soundness of this view is that in English grammar where adjectives are not inflected, no such concord is taught.[1]

A rule of concord, therefore, is only an expression of a quality existing in words by virtue of their capacity for inflexion. A rule of syntax is a description of the modification which words undergo in certain relations with other words, according to the invariable custom of the language.

4. Choice of instances whereby to teach syntax. It will, however, be urged that examples sufficient in nature and in number for the formation of a rule must be either made or found, either alternative assuming a familiarity with the language not common in Elementary School Staff. The objection is, no doubt, a weighty one, but I should be loth to think that elementary school children have therefore no choice but to go in for the repulsive drudgery involved in learning rules in the old fashion.

There is another process by which a knowledge of rules may be obtained, not equally scientific perhaps, but far more interesting to young scholars. Those familiar with such matters will readily recognise the source from which I partly borrow it.

[1] Does not concord then exist in the nominative of adjectives of one termination, as 'felix,' or in the case of an indeclinable adjective, as 'nequam'? Strictly, perhaps, it does not; but for the sake of uniformity we make believe that it is there, treating the inflexion as latent.

5. Sketch of a first lesson. Meaning.—Go at once to your Cæsar 'de Bello Gallico.' Take a sentence, the very first in the book if you like, and treat it thus—

Write on black-board, 'Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres, quarum unam incolunt Belgæ, aliam Aquitani, tertiam qui ipsorum lingua Celtæ, nostra Galli appellantur.' Translate literally:—'Gaul is all divided into parts three, of which one inhabit the Belgæ, another the Aquitani, a third who of themselves the language Celtæ, ours Galli are called.' So far we have little or no sense: let us see whether a little thought and the application of our accidence will not help us out. 'Parts three'—what does that stand for, do you think? 'Three parts,' certainly. Notice, then, that in Latin the adjective can be put after the noun. So far, then, we can understand: 'Gaul is all divided into three parts.'

Now, 'of which one inhabit the Belgæ.' What case is 'unam'? Accusative. What part of the verb is 'incolunt'? Third person plural present. What case is 'Belgæ'? Either genitive or dative singular, or nominative plural. Now, seeing that 'incolunt' is in the third person plural, what must its nominative be? Also third person plural. This fixes our choice as to the *case* of Belgæ. Now, in English where do we put the nominative? Before the verb. Then let us say, 'of which one the Belgæ inhabit.' (Notice, then, that in Latin the nominative may be found after the verb.)

Now, what sort of a verb is 'inhabit'? Transitive. What is its object here? One. But 'one' is a numeral adjective: what do adjectives do? Qualify and agree with nouns. What noun does 'one' qualify and agree with? Clearly none expressed: can we find one not expressed? We spoke just now of three parts: now we speak of one——? Part. Then 'part' understood is the object. Where do we generally put the object in English? After the verb. Do so here, and we get 'of which the Belgæ inhabit one part.'

Now, 'another the Aquitani'—surely we want a verb

here. The scholars will be pretty ready to supply the verb 'inhabit'; and (proceeding as before) we get 'the Aquitani inhabit another.'

Now, 'a third who of themselves the language Celtæ, ours Gauls, are called.' I must help you here. The meaning is, 'They who are called Celtæ in their own language, in our language Galli, inhabit the third part.' Let us see how we get that meaning out of the words. First we see that, as before, the adjective with its noun understood, which forms the object, has come first in Latin; next that, as before, the verb, being the same as in the previous clause, is understood. Next we find that the word 'they' has been introduced to form the antecedent to 'qui,' *who*. We shall often find the antecedent left out where it is a pronoun. Then we notice that the number of 'qui,' which is in itself ambiguous, is determined by the plural termination of the verb. About the word 'Celtæ' we need only observe that in the Latin it has been placed before the verb, whereas in English we must place it after the verb. Now, how do we get 'in their own language'? These words stand for 'ipsorum lingua.' 'Lingua,' I must tell you, is here in the ablative case; the ablative case is often used to express the manner in which a thing is done. 'Ipsorum' is what? A genitive plural, which we have learnt among the pronouns, from 'ipse,' meaning *himself*; therefore 'ipsorum,' *of themselves*, and so we get 'of themselves in the language.' We have already noticed that words are not arranged always in Latin as in English: let us invert these, and we get 'in the language of themselves.' This is the exact meaning, but it sounds prettier in English to say—what means the same—'in their own language.'

Now 'nostra.' We have learnt this; it is a part of 'noster,' *our*, a possessive adjective-pronoun, and it qualifies a noun understood, 'lingua,' supplied from the previous clause: let us therefore express the word as before, and we get 'in our language Galli.'

Now recapitulate : 'Gaul is all divided into three parts, of which the Belgæ inhabit one part, the Aquitani inhabit another part, they who are called Celtæ in their own language, Galli in our language, inhabit a third part.'

Here in strictness a first lesson should break off, but if I noticed any hesitation in the scholars' minds in realising that the sentence thus translated had a meaning, and what that meaning was, I would arouse them by pretending to read about Great Britain, that 'it is divided into three parts, of which the English inhabit one part, the Scotch another, they who are called Cymri in their own language, Welsh in our language, inhabit a third.' I should also, either at the close of the lesson, or at the beginning of the next, produce a map of old Gaul to illustrate the statement.

6. Sketch of second lesson. Grammar.—In the next lesson the same passage should be parsed ; the nature of each word should be stated, its primary form if it is inflected, and any rule of concord which affected it, should be referred to. Rules of grammar not being known, they will not be cited, but the mere facts should be stated ; e.g. 'partes,' accusative following the preposition 'in,' meaning 'into' ; 'unam' (partem), accusative after a transitive verb 'incolunt' ; 'lingua,' ablative, expressing the manner ; 'Celtæ,' nominative after 'appellantur.' (In the last case it will be advisable to ask as to any verb in English which allows a nominative to follow it, and thus foreshadow the rule to be eventually laid down here.)

7. Sketch of third lesson. Composition.—The third lesson here is one which requires a ready teacher. It consists of taking the words of the sentence and reforming them into fresh sentences, first very simple and gradually increasing in complexity, and finally introducing other but simple inflexions of the words used ; e.g.

'The Belgæ inhabit Gaul'; 'they who are called Aquitani inhabit Gaul'; 'the Celtæ are divided into three parts'; 'they who inhabit one part of Gaul are called Belgæ'; 'Cæsar divides Gaul into three parts'; 'the language of Gaul is divided'; 'all the Belgæ used to inhabit (imperfect) Gaul,' &c.

8. Results of lessons above.—Having exhausted this sentence, select another of a simple character, and treat it in the same way; and in the course of a very short time you will have familiarised the scholars with such rules as that 'the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case,' 'a transitive verb requires an object in the accusative case,' 'verbs of being with their cognates take the nominative case after them where the nominative precedes them.' (N.B. Be satisfied with this restricted form of this rule at first; the more extended rule that they take the same case after them as before them can only be understood when the children actually come across an oblique case before these verbs, as in the accusative and infinitive.)

The ablative of 'instrument and manner and of place,' of 'time when,' the accusative of 'motion to' and of 'time how long,' should be worked in the same way. The rules as to the dative require very special work, being in fact singularly arbitrary. It would be well to begin with the government by verbs of 'giving,' as this may be connected with the etymology of the word 'dative,' as shown above, and hence to work onwards to the general relation which this case expresses.

The next step will be to the syntax of dependent clauses: the first and simplest is that of the ablative after the comparative, then comes the accusative with infinitive, the ablative absolute and the gerundive participle.

Lastly comes the syntax of subordinate sentences, and thus the subjunctive mood.

A ready teacher who knows his subject will have no

difficulty in finding or framing apt sentences out of the first book of Cæsar for the introduction and inculcation of all these points, and he will find, as the lessons advance, that less and less help in translation will be required; the children, as they get accustomed to the method, will soon be dissatisfied with the mere literal meanings of the words and will ferret out the meaning of the sentence for themselves. When this stage is arrived at, the vocabulary should be introduced; after which time they may be left far more to themselves. The use of the dictionary is the last step; on the importance and value of it I have touched above; at the same time it is distinctly the last step, and one which will probably not be reached in the elementary school.

9. Second and third years' course.—It may be asked whereabouts in the above course the line is to be drawn separating the second and the third year's work. My answer is nowhere, or anywhere. It is impossible to define exactly the extent of 'the first rules of syntax' required in the second year, but it is certain that by the above method they will have been amply covered; at the same time, a larger stock of useful words will have been acquired, together with greater familiarity with the use of them, than could have been obtained by working 'delectus, or other first Latin reading-book.' Whether Cæsar is absolutely the best book for the purpose is another question; it is sufficient to say that it is good enough.

CHAPTER XI.

FRENCH.

1. Having gone at some length into the method to be adopted for teaching Latin, I need not do much more than point out that the same may be applied to French.

2. **Pronunciation.**—Thus, in teaching pronunciation, it is of no use to give general rules for the letters, in the hope that they may be applied to the particular word, but we must teach the pronunciation of particular words; and hence, if you like, make a rule for the letters. The same applies to the accents, and the 'liaison,' on which I have a word or two below. (I may remark here that, in my opinion, the compilers of the Code have erred in putting 'pronunciation' at the end of the whole course. It may be a question whether it should be taken up at the very beginning; and I can only give it as my experience that it is very nearly as easy to begin right as wrong. But to remit all mention of the matter till faults are all inveterate is preposterous.)

3. **Accidence.**—Again, the children should find out for themselves the distinctions of the genders and numbers in articles, nouns, and adjectives. Begin with some examples of the noun with the article, as 'le père,' 'la mère,' 'l'enfant.' Write these on the black-board, with translation; let the children simply follow your lead till they pronounce the words correctly, and can give their meaning; next, bring them to see that 'le,' 'la,' 'l'' must stand in each case

for *the*. Then take—say, 'l'air,' 'l'enfant,' 'l'image,' 'l'office,' 'l'uniforme;' run over the meanings, and again point out that 'l' stands for *the*. Elicit the fact (or teach it, for it is one with which our elementary school children are seldom familiar) that these words all begin with a vowel. Then teach the meaning of the apostrophe as the mark of elision, and so get to the rule that 'le' or 'la' stands for *the*, having dropped their vowel before a following vowel in the noun. Experiment with other nouns, as 'ange,' 'or,' 'idole,' &c.

4. Gender.—Having mastered thus much, give a few nouns masculine and feminine (in sex as well as gender), as 'le père,' 'la mère,' 'le cheval,' 'la jument,' 'le bœuf,' 'la vache,' with their meanings; and get the children to find out that the difference between 'le' and 'la' depends on gender. You will now explain to them, as above (p. 19, chap. vi. § 5), that, in French, sex and gender are not connected, and illustrate the fact. Let them learn a few of the illustrations, as 'le ciel,' 'la mer,' 'la terre,' 'le soleil,' 'la lune,' 'le lait,' 'la table,' 'la quille,' 'le quartier.' (Note the two last examples, which will bring in incidentally the fact that 'qu' has generally only the sound of 'k' in French. The exceptions to this rule are not likely to be met with.)

5. Number: regular plurals.—As there are really no cases to French nouns, you will now proceed to the plural number, as regularly formed by adding *s*, and let the children note the similarity to the English rule: use the former examples where practicable. In the plural of words beginning with a vowel, teach them to sound the 'liaison' with the article, and illustrate the idea of euphony on which it depends.

6. Accents.—Now take two words, like 'pêche' and 'péché,' and bring out by their means the function of accents

and their use in 'differentiating' words. Gradually enlarge the scope of the lesson until it takes in all the accents, with apt illustrations, as 'cité,' 'tête,' 'remède,' 'été,' 'quête,' 'modèle.' (Note that every new word learnt should have its proper definite article attached, as in the lesson on the articles. Finally, form their plurals as before.)

7. Irregular plurals.—The irregularities in the formation of the plural may now be taught, but very generally: the children will pick up enough at first by ear; when they begin to catch the principle, let them learn the rules as to the exceptional plurals by heart.

8. The adjective and its inflexions.—Now proceed to the inflexions of the indefinite article and the adjective, following the lines laid down above, under the head of Latin Adjectives (p. 23, ch. vii. § 1). The rules for the formation of the feminine will best be learnt by ear at first, and reduced into cut-and-dried shape later. Irregular formations had better be omitted, except in the case of such necessary words as 'bon,' 'beau,' 'doux,' 'long,' 'vieux,' and two or three others.

9. Begin composition.—You have now sufficient grammar to make small but intelligible sentences, composed of noun, copula, and adjective. From these proceed to similar sentences, with extension by means of a prepositional phrase. Thus (1) 'le lait est doux,' 'la crème est blanche,' 'l'encre est noire;' (2) 'le lait est dans la tasse,' 'la crème est sur la table,' 'l'encre est dans l'encrier.' Let the prepositions and their uses be thus learnt by ear rather than by rule. Now proceed to the use of 'de' (1) simply, (2) compounded into 'du'; and thus enlarge your sentences by the introduction of genitive cases; next treat 'à' and 'au' in the same manner.

10. The verbs 'être' and 'avoir.'—In learning the French verb, it is unfortunately necessary to begin with the

irregular 'être' and 'avoir,' inasmuch as they enter so largely as auxiliaries into the formation of the regular verbs. Here, as in Latin, a good deal of trouble should be taken (more certainly than seems to be expected in the published grammars) to enable the children to realise the meaning of the tenses.[1] It is unfortunate that the nomenclature here is more than usually difficult; past definite and anterior (or worse still, preterite definite and anterior) being enough to daze the brightest intellect of the elementary school. I should, however, recommend that, in first going through 'avoir' and 'être,' none but the simple tenses be learned; i.e. those required as auxiliaries in the compound tenses of other verbs.

In the moods the conditional will be a new name to the children, but will not be difficult to explain.

In the course of learning their first verb the children will also have learned incidentally the nominative cases of the personal pronouns.

11. **Conjugations.**—From this point onwards through the conjugations of the regular verbs I have no recommendation to make except this, that each of the examples should be illustrated at once by a sentence, and also by similar formations of other verbs; thus, when the children have learnt the imperfect, 'j'aimais, *I was loving*,' let them, before going on, (1) frame sentences, such as 'le père aimait l'enfant,' 'tu aimais le lait,' 'les enfants aimaient la mère,' and (2) learn to conjugate other verbs, as, 'j'apportais,' 'je frappais,' &c., and frame sentences therewith. This will afford a useful exercise of wits for both teacher and scholars.

[1] For a sketch of the relation between present and past tenses, see p. 26, ch. viii. § 2; but note that the present imperfect active ('I am striking') is rarely expressed by the French present active; the present imperfect passive ('I am being struck') is never expressed by the French present passive. A periphrasis is required instead.

12. Pronouns.—The next step after the verb will be the inflexion of the pronouns: here children will be easily led to recognise the similarity to the English language, in which also pronouns are the only words inflected as to case.

Along with the demonstrative you may point out the valuable indefinite 'on,' and the two solitary neuter forms 'ceci' and 'cela,' as in constant use.

13. Miscellaneous.—I pass over several small but by no means unnecessary details, as the proper use of the negative 'ne... pas,' the construction of interrogatory sentences, &c. These will be readily enough learnt by ear and practice; but in these, as in all other cases, let the children hear the expression in actual use before it is made the subject of a rule.

14. Vocabulary.—We now come to the difficult question of vocabulary, on which I have already made some comments. The difficulty is, first, to say what the Code means, and, secondly, to work out the interpretation of it. 'Vocabulary' primarily means a book of vocables or words; but it is hard to believe that children were intended to learn dry lists of words, the most dreary and at the same time the most useless task in which they could be engaged. True, it may be vitalised to a certain extent by arranging the words on some system, as I have pointed out above; but the question remains to be answered, where such a 'catalogue raisonné' is to be found. On the other hand, it is clear that the Code requires something to be learnt over and above 'avoir,' 'être,' 'aimer,' &c. Probably what is meant is that the children should get in a small stock of words equal in bulk to ten pages of a vocabulary; it behoves us, therefore, to see how this may best be done.

For my part, I should recommend teachers either to work their vocabulary into the lessons in the shape of

examples of the various rules, in the manner suggested in the previous sections of this chapter, or to set a very easy and short story to be learned by heart, and then to be picked to pieces and reconstructed into short sentences, as suggested above, under Latin Syntax (p. 36, ch. x. § 5).

15. Second and third years' course.—The second and third years' courses must begin with the irregular verbs, on which all the advice I can give is to go through them, but not to learn them by heart; the time required would be too long, and the results disproportionate: the irregular verbs are learnt by use and by reference; but they must be read through in order that the children may know their way about them when reference is necessary.

16. Grammar for second and third years.—The Code here lays down, rather vaguely, 'grammar' as part of the requirement, leaving it uncertain whether the teacher should take a portion in the second year and the remainder in the third, or treat the whole in each year, lightly in the second year, and more completely in the third. Taking this uncertainty into consideration, as well as my own experience of the difficulty of dealing with the subject satisfactorily in this manner and in the time allowed, I would take the responsibility of bidding the teacher proceed boldly into a reading-book, as simple as may be, but interesting and connected. The book may be submitted to the Inspector for approval, with a query whether he will be satisfied with a general knowledge of the meaning of, say, twenty pages of it, with a power of reproducing it in conversation, and a general knowledge of the rules of grammar involved.

17. Reading-book.—For instance, take Erckmann-Chatrian's 'Waterloo,' chap. xviii., The Battle of Ligny. The first page presents very few difficulties, and those of a very

simple character; such are, 'je m'éveillais,' reflective verb, translated in English by a simple verb—'à la lune, *in the moonlight*'—' des Qui vive, *cries of* Qui vive'—' se voyaient, *saw each other*'—' à deux cents pas, *at* (a distance of) 200 *paces*'—' me levais,' compare with ' m'éveillais ' above—' il faisait du vent,' idiomatic impersonal use of a verb—' il tombait une goutte,' not so easy of explanation, but illustrating the occasional idiomatic use of ' il ' as grammatical subject, where the logical subject follows, an idiom not common enough to require more than passing attention.

I should begin by reading to the children the first sentence. I should then translate it, first literally, then (by the help of the children) grammatically (see above, pp. 36–38, ch. x. §§ 5, 6), then read it again, making them follow simultaneously; then read off the literal meanings; then the grammatical. By this time they will have picked up most of the words by heart. Some exercises from English into French would now be advisable, but this is not at present necessary, and you may pass at once to the next sentence, and treat it in the same way. Recapitulate the back lesson summarily at the beginning of the next. Where any point has appeared peculiarly knotty, mark it in the book and recapitulate it summarily at the beginning of every lesson, until it is grasped.

18. Composition. — These lessons advance rather slowly at first, but it is surprising how soon they begin to gain in speed; and it will be found that there will be time for evolving the grammatical rules, and also for turning English into French. This, which, as I said above, may be begun at once, should at any rate not be delayed beyond the time when the children get used to the method. It should be oral entirely at first; but the children should be encouraged to write on their slates the sentences they compose. (As to use of vocabulary and dictionary, see pp. 39–40, ch. x. § 8.)

CHAPTER XII.

GERMAN.

1. Difficulties peculiar to study of German.—I do not believe it to be possible to effect anything practical in teaching German in an elementary school. The difficulties are singular: first comes the character; second, the pronunciation; then the multitude of ambiguous sounds used in inflexion; for example, the termination *en*, a jack-of-all-trades, used for well-nigh everything, from a present infinitive to a dative plural: then the minute and apparently arbitrary inflexions of the noun and adjective; the wilderness of auxiliaries required for the verb, and the fact that familiar English auxiliaries (be, will, should) are not auxiliaries in German; the pedantic rules as to position of the verb; the existence of separable verbs; and above all, the difficulty of finding a book which will not either disgust children by its childishness, or repel them by its crabbedness. It will be said, and with truth, that in the copious ballads or poems in ballad-form of the German school we may find much of pellucid, almost infantine, simplicity; but the difficulty still remains of bridging over the wide interval between such works and the ordinary German prose. For these reasons I cannot hold out a hope of doing much with German within the time applicable thereto.

2. Résumé of method.—If the attempt is made, the method had better be a combination of those laid down above for Latin and French; i.e. first learn a few easy nouns

with their definite articles, and their meanings: hence work out distinctions of gender and number. The declension of nouns will follow, with explanation of the use of cases as in Latin; next the indefinite article, adjective, pronoun, with their inflexions. Then form sentences with noun, copula ('ist' or 'sind'), and adjective or pronoun, or such prepositional phrase as can be used. Here must be learnt the very intricate rules for the inflexion of the adjective (1) alone, (2) preceded by the definite article, (3) preceded by the indefinite article, &c. Practice and ear, here as elsewhere, will be required to supplement the rule, which is really of a somewhat arbitrary character.

3. Auxiliaries.—Before the verb can be discussed, a thorough and searching lesson is required in the use and function of English auxiliaries.

It may be asked, why this is required in the study of German rather than in that of French. The reason is, that the French auxiliaries follow so closely the lines of the English, both in nature, use, and position, that the English mind can adopt and assimilate them without positive explanation, salutary as that would be, if time allowed it. Thus, 'ils avaient été frappés' is the literal translation of 'they had been struck,' word by word, while 'nous aurons été frappés' only requires the simple amplification of 'aurons' into 'shall have.' On the other hand, the German auxiliary is often either different in nature and use, as in 'Ich *werde* geschlagen, *I am being struck*'; or 'Ich *werde* schlagen, *I shall strike*'; or in position, as where it follows the participle, as in 'Ich werde geschlagen worden sein, *I shall have been struck.*'

If, therefore, you hope to get children to learn their tenses intelligently, you must first see that they understand the principle of auxiliaries; and you must be continuously on your guard later on, lest they try to translate English auxiliaries by their German homonyms instead of their

German equivalents, and thereby produce barbarisms, such as 'Ich will gehen, *I will go*'; 'Er ist von einem Kind geleitet, *He is* (*being*) *led by a child.*'

4. The verb.—It will be necessary to learn *werden*, *sein*, and *haben* by heart, in order to get the needful inflexions of those auxiliaries, before attacking the regular verbs. Apart from the question of the auxiliaries, the verb presents another difficulty, in the fact that while the simple past tense resembles the English in form, it often differs from it in sense.

5. Composition.—The regular verb presents no other difficulties; and when children have been brought thus far, they should have had their minds stored with a sufficient number of nouns, adjectives, prepositions, and pronouns to make the composition and decomposition of simple sentences pretty easy. As to vocabulary, I can only repeat what I said above (p. 45, ch. xi. § 14).

6. Irregular verbs.—The irregular verbs are not, on the whole, so hard as they look; for this reason, that English is here a real help. Thus you would first bring out the similarity between two regular verbs in German and English, a similarity which consists in this, that they both are inflected by addition of syllables to an unchanged stem. Hence you lead to the similarity between the irregular verbs in the two languages, which are inflected by more or less change in the stem. It may then be pointed out that, as the languages are so closely allied, there is always a presumption that an irregular verb in English is irregular also in German, as in 'rennen,' 'denken,' 'liegen,' 'thun,' 'beginnen,' &c. But, after all, there is little to be done but to learn these verbs by heart.

7. Compound verbs.—The rules as to the separability or otherwise of compound verbs will require to be explained

at some time or other; but it would be better to postpone them until an instance occurs.

8. Reading-books.—Inasmuch as the adverbs and conjunctions here, as in other languages, can be properly learnt by use only, I would advise a teacher at this point to shake off the dust of the grammar entirely, and go to translation of easy German, such as Hans Christian Andersen's 'Tales' (in German translation), or *selected* portions of Goethe's 'Reinecke Fuchs,' working it in the way laid down above (ch. x. § 5, p. 36; ch. xi. § 17, p. 47).

9. Second and third years.—As to the division between second and third years' course, see my remarks above (p. 46, ch. xi. § 15–17), which would apply equally here.

CHAPTER XIII.

CONCLUDING REMARKS.

1. Amount of time required for course of study. The question will naturally be asked, What length of time will be required to carry out these courses of study, assuming them to be taken as additional to the ordinary work of the elementary school? I consider that, to do the work properly, at least two hours a week are necessary, in three lessons, if possible; if not, in two; in addition to which, home lessons will be required, as soon as the children can do anything alone, either in the way of learning by heart or of writing exercises. The idea of ten-minute lessons is—an idea: I do not think any teachers are likely to try it.

2. Pupil-teacher's share in instruction.—Another important question is, What part can pupil-teachers take in instruction of this sort? My answer is, a very subordinate one. Of course, if the study of a language consisted only of grinding into the memory declensions, conjugations, rules with cut-and-dried examples, and strings of words, a pupil-teacher might superintend it pretty nearly as well as an experienced adult; but where system, foresight, and accurate knowledge of minutiæ, quickness of apprehension, and versatility of thought are the essence of the method, it is doing no injustice to pupil-teachers to say that they are generally unequal to the task. All introductory

lessons must, therefore, here as in all other studies, be given exclusively by the head-teacher. As the class advances, the pupil-teacher will find his proper function in getting a class together for the head-teacher, and in recapitulating the last preceding lesson. He may hear, with the book in his hands, anything that has been learnt by heart; he may, when the foundation of a rule has been laid, guide the class in working out further instances of it; he may look over written work before it goes into the hands of the head-teacher; he may work up backward and irregular children on the lines already laid down by the head-teacher. The assistance thus given will be of a most valuable character, and will require all the intelligence and adaptability of a good pupil-teacher. But if a pupil-teacher be dull, unready, or superficial, I can only advise that he be left to take charge of studies, if such there be, in which these qualities are no drawback. In the study of language he will only stupefy or mislead a class just where intelligence is most essential, and misconceptions are hardest of correction.

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